



## 3. Managing people

### 3.1 Introduction

#### *Who are the people?*

It has become a cliché to say that an organisation's most valuable resource is its people – but it is still true. And our people need to be managed in a way which enables them to be fulfilled in their work and to reach their potential – for themselves and for their organisations.

The purpose of many European youth organisations is the development of people and so it is perhaps wise that we start with those on the inside – be they paid or unpaid, volunteers, staff or Board members. Each person – whether we see them as groups or individuals – needs to be managed and led in order to reach their potential and to ensure that their efforts serve the organisation in the most effective and efficient way.

Each person brings talents and skills and knowledge and experience into their work. For the purpose of this T-kit we will call this collection “competence”. Each person has a unique set of competencies which can be applied in different ways and in different situations. For example, an unpaid Board member may bring years of financial management experience, the skill to read and interpret balance sheets and a real talent for explaining figures to others with less experience. The down side might be that this experience comes from a different sector – the commercial world where the driving force is profit – and the Board member might have difficulty balancing that with the social objectives of the organisation. In contrast the youth worker with the ability to relate well with young people on the street and a natural talent in counselling, may have difficulty keeping records of expenditure. Both have a unique set of competencies and both have a significant contribution to make to the organisation. Managing people is about making the most of those competencies, for as much of the time as possible and ensuring that they continue to develop.

This section of the T-kit is dedicated to the issues of managing people. A significant proportion is given over to the concepts of team working and leadership, as this forms the foundation on which much of the other material is based. Having answered the question “who are the people?”, the following chapters attempt to answer the question “How do we manage them?”

Throughout the section suggestions are made for discussions or brainstorming titles. In some cases a list of possible answers is also included.

### 3.2 Teams and leaders

#### *3.2.1 Teamworking and leadership*

Most if not all European youth organisations are made of people who work in teams. The synergy created by people working towards a common goal enables much more to be accomplished than would be done by individuals who did not share the same vision. Often however, our teams are geographically disparate and are made of a mixture of paid and unpaid staff, full time and part time, young and old and – dare we say it? – competent and incompetent. This variety brings both benefits and challenges.

#### *Suggestions for training*

##### *What is a team?*

A group assembled for a specific common purpose? \_\_\_\_\_  
Prepared to put the goals of the group before their personal ones? \_\_\_\_\_

##### *What makes an effective team?*

Communication and feedback skills? \_\_\_\_\_  
Ability in group maintenance? \_\_\_\_\_  
Support for the leadership? \_\_\_\_\_  
The balance of relevant competencies? \_\_\_\_\_  
A climate of trust, openness and sharing? \_\_\_\_\_  
Full and willing participation? \_\_\_\_\_  
Commitment to team objectives? \_\_\_\_\_

##### *What are the disadvantages of team working?*

Time consuming? \_\_\_\_\_  
Loss of individual identity? \_\_\_\_\_



The purpose of this section is to provide some tools to enable us to get the most out of our teams. You might start by asking the following questions, which can be turned into an exercise.

**Suggestions for training**

- Compare the Belbin team roles (Fig. OM 11) with those of your team



An important piece of work has been carried out by Meredith Belbin in relation to the individual roles members of a team take on. As individual members and especially as leaders, we do well to understand the roles to which we are best suited. Belbin categorised “useful people to have in teams” into 8 types as described in the table below.

As can be seen, there are both strengths and weaknesses to each of these roles, as indeed there are in any individual in a team. The crucial issue is that we understand and appreciate these and that we can see where the gaps are in the composition of our teams.

The roles people take in teams are frequently fluid and dynamic, and often change as the team develops or the situation changes. In one sense, it is helpful to think of leadership as just one role that can be taken by an individual and the same is true for management. The latter in particular can be broken down into a number of functions which might be shared between a number of different people at different times.

The terms leadership and management are often used to mean the same thing, when in reality they are two distinct roles. Leaders are often expected to be good managers and managers are often required to provide leadership for those they manage.


One way to express the distinction is that “**Managers do things right, whilst leaders do the right thing**”, alternatively, it is sometimes said that leaders are responsible for effectiveness and managers are responsible for efficiency. The significant issues being those of

direction and focus for the leader and method and application for the manager. For example, the leader would be the person who took the initiative for the development of a strategic plan, would introduce new concepts and encourage discussion and criticism of the performance and policies of the organisation. The manager would be keen to ensure that the agreed policies were adhered to, that indicators and measures of performance were appropriate and were used. S/he would be concerned with application whilst the leader would perhaps be more concerned with design. It is clear that the two elements – leadership and management – cannot easily be separated. The reality is that some people in positions of responsibility have stronger leadership competencies than management competencies and vice versa. Another good reason for the team approach to running organisations.

**Suggestions for training**

- What are the different functions of a manager?

- Co-ordination*
- Encouragement*
- Motivation*
- Setting an Example*
- Recruitment*
- Target setting*
- Ensuring the job is done*
- Maintaining an overview*



Organisations come together to achieve a particular purpose or task. Much of leadership is about **clarifying that purpose and uniting people in their commitment** to it. John Adair has suggested that the achievement of the **task** depends on the attention given by the leader to both the needs of **individuals**, and to the needs of the **group (or team)** as a whole.

As we lead – indeed as we manage – groups of people, we need to consider the relative amounts of time and effort we put into these three areas (see OM 12). If we work hard on maintaining the identity and the morale of the group but fail to attend to the individual needs of its members then achievement of the task will suffer. Likewise, if we give all our attention to



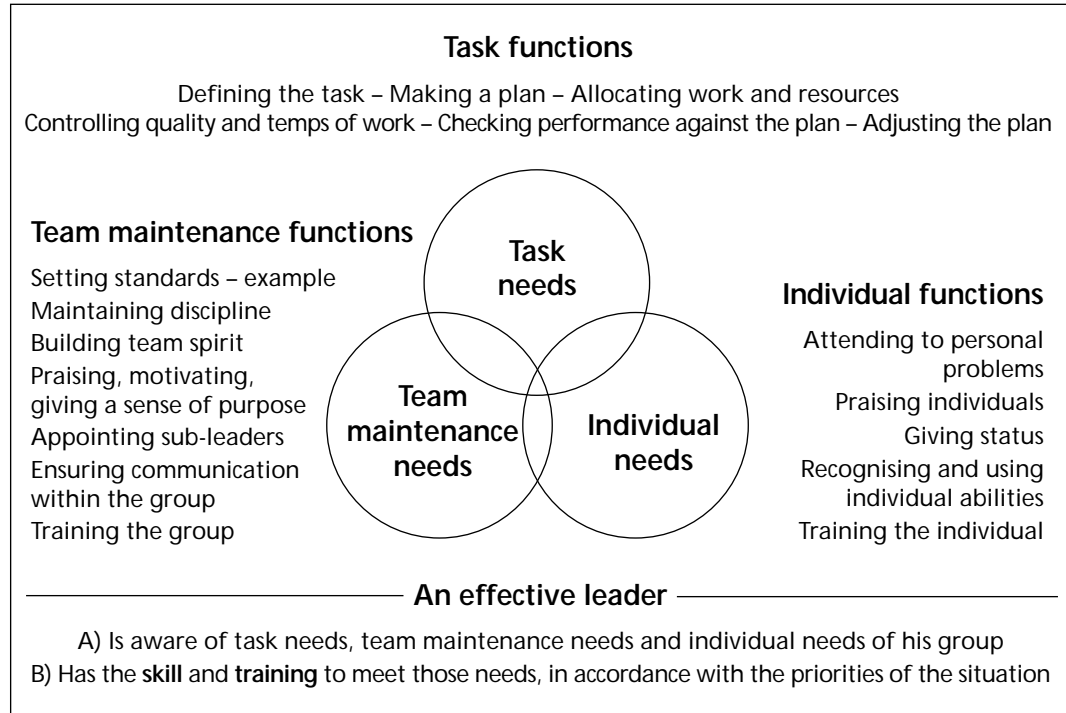
**Fig. OM-11 : Useful people to have in teams**

Type	Typical features	Positive qualities	Allowable weakness
<b>Company worker</b>	Conservative, dutiful and predictable	Organising ability, practical common sense, hard working self-discipline	Lack of flexibility and unresponsiveness to unproven ideas
<b>Chairman</b>	Calm, self controlled and self-confident	A capacity for treating and welcoming all potential contributors on their merits and without prejudice. A strong sense of objectives.	No more than ordinary in terms of intellect or creative ability
<b>Shaper</b>	Highly strung, outgoing and dynamic	Drive and a readiness to challenge inertia, complacency, ineffectiveness or self-deception	Proneness to impatience, irritation and provocation
<b>Plant</b>	Individualistic, serious-minded and unorthodox	Genius, imagination, intellect and knowledge	Up in the clouds, inclining to disregard practical details or protocol
<b>Resource investigator</b>	Extroverted, enthusiastic, curious and communicative	A capacity for contacting people and exploring anything new. An ability to respond to challenge.	Liable to lose interest once the initial fascination has passed.
<b>Monitor evaluator</b>	Sober, unemotional and prudent	Judgement, discretion and hard-headedness	Lacks inspiration or the ability to motivate others
<b>Team worker</b>	Socially orientated, rather mild, and sensitive	An ability to respond to people and to situations, and to promote team spirit	Indecisiveness at moments of crisis
<b>Completer finisher</b>	Painstaking, orderly, anxious and conscientious	A capacity for follow through, perfectionism	A tendency to worry about nothing. A reluctance to "let go".

Source : Belbin, R.M. (1981) *Management Teams*, Heinemann; reprinted by permission of Butterworth Heinemann Publishers, a division of Reed Educational and Professional Publishing Ltd.



Fig. OM-12: Action centred leadership model



Source: Adair, John (1983) *Effective Leadership: a Self Development Manual*, Aldershot: Gower ISBN 0-330-28100-3

the needs (or demands!) of one or two members of the group at the expense of group cohesion and common understanding, the same will happen. Furthermore, if we constantly focus on the task to be achieved, without attending to building up the group of people as a team, or to the development needs of each individual, then we can expect achievement to be difficult to sustain and potentially off target.

As teams are fluid and dynamic, so leadership needs to be both flexible and dynamic. The so-called ruthlessness of famous world leaders through history can perhaps often be interpreted as single minded commitment to a cause; a commitment which followers share and which overrides all other considerations. But in European youth organisations at the beginning of the new millennium, democracy, shared decision making and a team approach are crucial to the achievement of goals. While the phenomenon of leadership by personality still achieves much; sustainable, empowering and inclusive leadership is able to respond to a wider range of needs with a wider range of solutions.

**Suggestions for training**

- In small groups discuss a leader from history and what it was which made them successful or effective

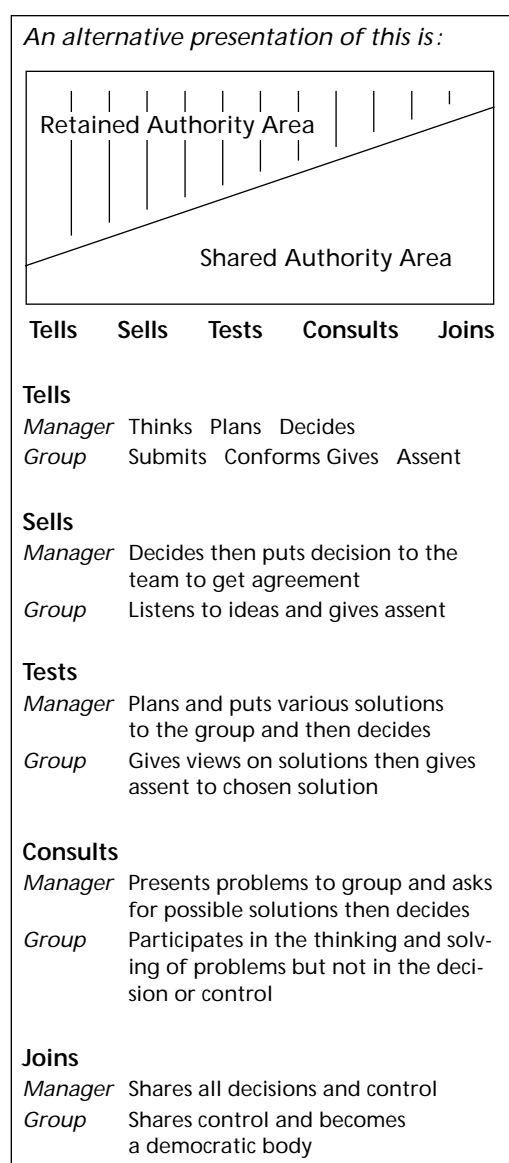
Responding to need is the *raison d'être* for many, if not all our organisations. Needs are often diverse and changeable and so leadership of our organisations needs to be both responsive and pro-active. The notion of leadership "**style**" can help our understanding here. If our leadership is to be dynamic and flexible then the leader needs to be able to read situations – tasks, teams and individuals – and make decisions about how they should be responded to. A leader's decisions will also create situations – new tasks, closer teams, better developed individuals (or their opposites). How those decisions are made is a reflection of style.



A number of writers have blended their description of leadership style with their understanding of how teams develop. Their models can help in assessing the appropriateness of a particular style at a particular stage in the development of a team.

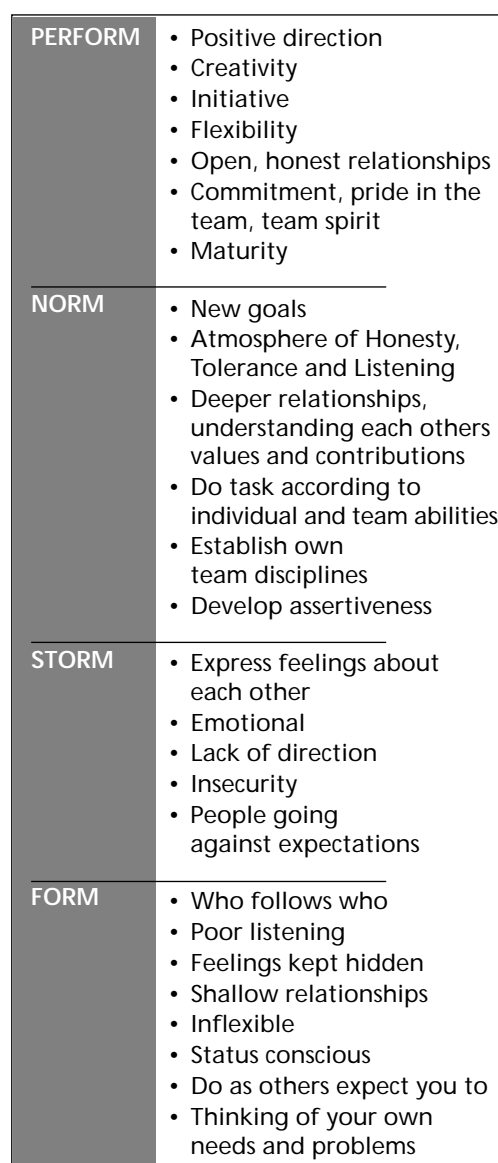
In this model, distinct stages of development of a team can be seen. In reality, the stages are never so distinct and the team may slide down the pole some or all of the way in the course of its development and its achievement of "performance".

**Fig. OM-13: How to choose a leadership pattern**



Source: Tannenbaum, R and Schmidt, W.H., "How to choose a leadership pattern" in *Harvard Business Review*, May-June 1973. Copyright © 1973 by President and Fellows of Harvard College; all rights reserved.

**Fig. OM-14: Greasy Pole Model**



Source: Tuckman, B. W. (1965) "Developmental sequences in small groups" in *Psychological Bulletin* vol. 63, p. 384-399. Copyright © 1965 by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.



The model above indicates that authority or decision making power, is transferred gradually to a group as it develops the competencies – both in individuals and collectively – it needs to carry out a task. The group which is perfectly capable and experienced in carrying out a task will not respond well to a “telling” (or authoritarian) style of leadership. Likewise the team which has only just come together – even if it is made up of highly competent individuals – needs to be given information and direction early on so that it can progress towards shared authority for decision making.

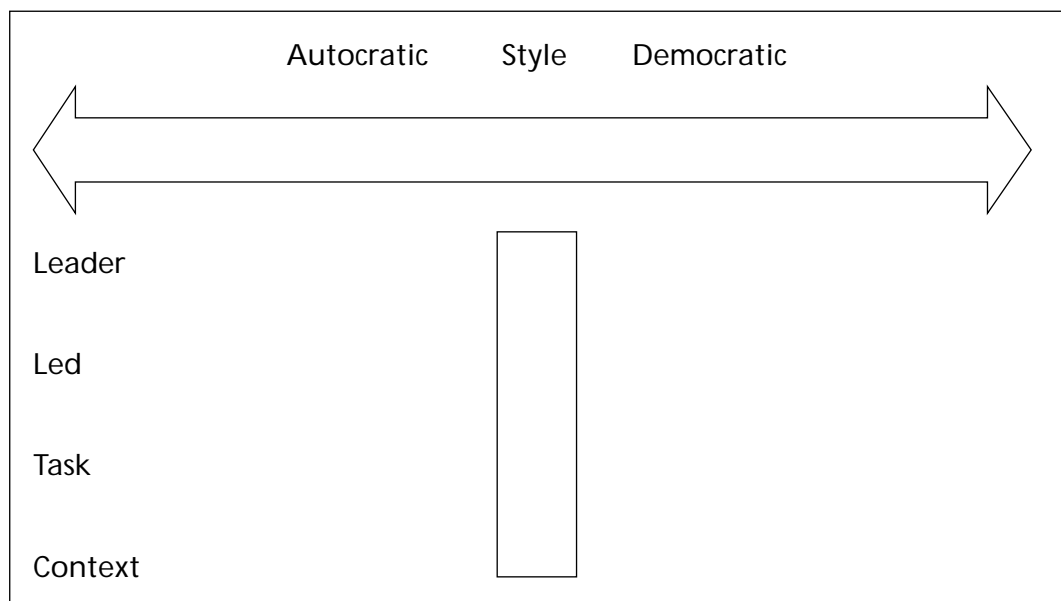
As with any other role or function in a team, leadership – of whatever style – requires the development of competencies; not least in choosing which style to use and when. The term delegation needs some attention here as it is used both as a style of leadership in its own right, and as one of the skills applicable to many styles. Delegation, when used to describe a style of leadership, implies that authority for decision making is handed over to team members. It requires a level of trust in both leader and team, and a full understanding of the task and the competencies of the team. As a generic skill, delegation still requires trust and understanding; furthermore it requires the ability to decide what tasks or responsibilities should or should not be delegated.

### Suggestions for training

Some questions to ask trainees (individually, and collectively)

- Make two lists – one to describe the things which happen in ideal teams e.g. communication, decision making, trust, support etc etc; and one to describe the types of people you need in an ideal team e.g. leader, resource finder, time keeper, co-ordinator, worker. Compare these lists with the team you are currently a part of; where are the gaps and the repetition?
- What do you consider to be the key skills and attributes of the ideal leader in your organisation?
- In response to the slippery pole model (figure 3) choose a team which you lead and discuss what stage of development you feel it is at. What style of leadership is most appropriate to ensure development and achievement of the task?

Fig. OM-15: The “best fit” option



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In conclusion then, we have considered teams as dynamic developing groups and leaders as dynamic, flexible people within them. We have seen the need for a balance of attention to be given to the task, the needs of the individuals and the needs of the group as a team.

Elsewhere in this document we have considered the context of our organisation; internally, in terms of organisational culture and externally in terms of the Social, Technical, Economic, Political and Environmental context (STEPE) in which we work.

Leadership is crucial in all of this, and the most effective leadership will have found a “best fit” for the demands of the following four elements: The leader’s preferred style, the team’s preferred style, the style most appropriate to the task and the style most appropriate to the context.

As we move into the next section we will consider issues and competencies which help to make teams work.

In doing this we will build up a kit of management tools and discuss the choices managers make in their use.

### 3.2.2 Motivating people

In chapter 2 we considered the concept of self motivation. In the following section we consider how we motivate others, particularly in the light of some theoretical models.

#### *Suggestions for training*

By way of introduction to the subject of motivation we need to ask the following questions.

- In working (paid or unpaid) for your organisation, what is it that gives you pleasure and/or satisfaction, and what is it that gives you displeasure and/or dissatisfaction?
- Think of other jobs you might do in this or other organisations – what, if anything, would change on your list?

If we select one thing from these lists e.g. Money, we can then consider how that item can be both a motivator and a demotivator. Herzberg presented the idea that some things satisfy us, but the absence of them does not necessarily produce dissatisfaction. Likewise, some things dissatisfy but the absence of them is not necessarily satisfaction, rather no dissatisfaction.

**Motivating Factors = satisfiers = job content = Maslow’s higher order needs**

**Hygiene Factors = dissatisfiers = job conditions = Maslow’s lower order needs**

#### *Suggestions for training*

- Returning to your lists, which items would you classify as Hygiene factors and which ones would be Motivating factors?

Maslow presented his hierarchy of needs as in the diagram below, suggesting that once one level of need is satisfied then a person moves on to the next level of need.

Without the satisfaction of the lower order of needs (1, 2 and 3) then the higher ones will not be relevant.

As we consider the people we manage it, would seem that effort first needs to be put into meeting the lower order needs – the dissatisfiers – Herzberg’s hygiene factors. Often, but not exclusively, our organisations can say that those lower order needs have been met and that the role of the manager is to focus on meeting higher needs such as achievement, recognition, self esteem, personal development and self realisation.

#### *Suggestions for training*

- How, as a manager do I ensure that those who work for me are having their higher order needs met? How do I ensure that they are sustained?



Motivating Factors (higher order, growth needs) control quality of working life and the quality of experiences at work. Some are inherent in the job e.g. achievement of tasks; and others come from good management e.g. respect for and from other people, opportunities for development and challenging work.

Alderfer (in Handy, 1990) grouped Maslow's hierarchy into three sections – Existence needs (Maslow 1&2), Relationship needs (Maslow 3 & part of 4) and Growth needs (part of 4, & 5). He stated that these needs are Chronic – always there, or Episodic – sometimes there. There are some clear links here with the Action Centred Leadership model of John Adair, as outlined in the previous section (Figure 12); Existence needs might be paralleled with Task needs, Relationship needs with Team needs, and Growth needs with Individual needs.

McGregor's theory X and theory Y suggested that manager's styles fell into two categories due to theories about people's motivation to work. Theory X states that most people are lazy, are unable to discipline and control their work, prize security and avoid responsibility. Thus people need external incentives and to be told what to do.

Theory Y states that all people find work natural, accept self discipline, seek responsibility and like commitments. Thus people can only realise their potential if they are allowed to use their imagination and creativity.

**Suggestions for training**

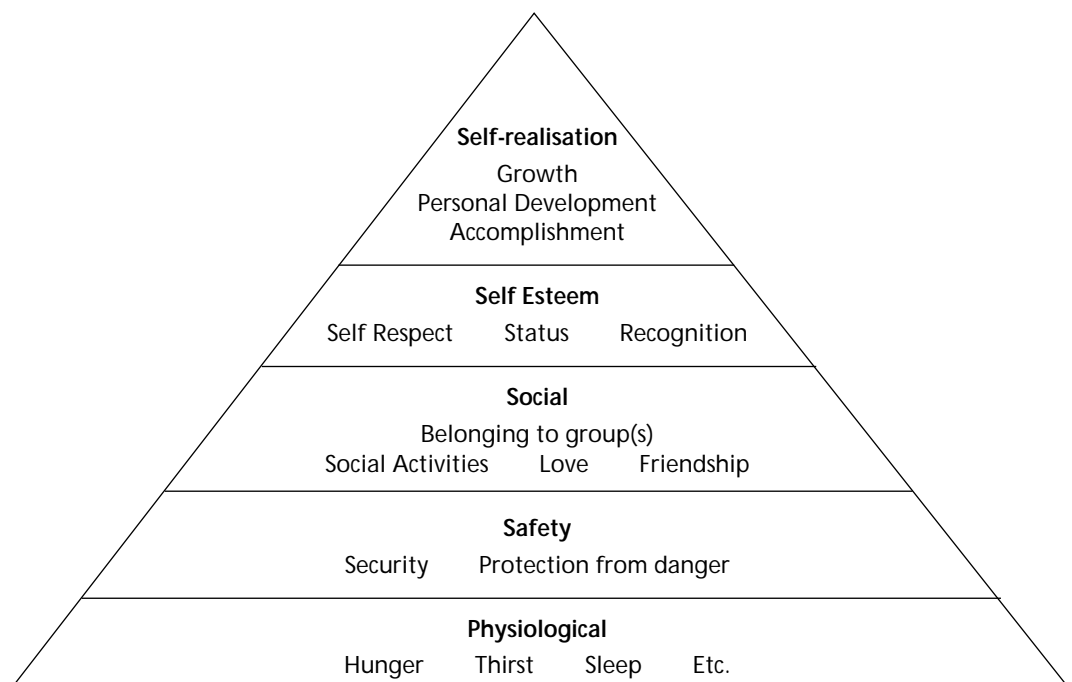
- Consider what effect style of leadership might have on the motivation of your team members. Do some styles of leadership focus on Hygiene Factors and some on Motivating Factors?

**Suggestions for training**

- Consider your experience of managing people and of being managed. How do you respond to the two theories? What evidence can you see to support each one?

Source: Maslow, A.H. *Motivation and Personality*, © 1954. Reprinted and electronically reproduced by permission of Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, New Jersey

Fig. OM-16: Individual needs







### 3.2.3 Empowerment

The concept of empowerment is intertwined with all of this. Referring to the Tannenbaum and Schmidt model in the previous section (Figure 13), we can see that leaders (and/or managers) can retain or devolve power to others through their style of leading (or managing). Empowerment need not necessarily imply that the power is handed over from one in authority to a subordinate. Some thinkers would argue that everyone has the power already and all the “empowerer” does is enable the realisation of it. In working with young people in particular, we need to consider where we are withholding or over burdening them with power and where we are “disempowering” by not enabling their knowledge or abilities or creativity to come forward.

We return again to the idea that the purpose of many of our organisations is to enable young people to reach their full potential. An empowering attitude to the management of those who work with us is primarily about realising the full potential of the human resource of the organisation.

Finally, we need to consider again the dynamism factor. People and organisations change, as do their environments and contexts. This has to affect motivation: Through past experience (upbringing, education, experience in and out of work); through their present situations (the individuals own perspective and one’s own view of the perspectives of colleagues); and through our perceptions of the future (prospects in this organisation and outside, personal aspirations, paid or unpaid). The young volunteer who has a stable family background, good education and the encouragement of peers and leaders will have a very different kind of motivation to the person without such encouragement and whose previous experience is of failure or rejection. Both may be well motivated, but the combination and origin of the hygiene and motivating factors outlined above, may be very different. Maslow’s highest needs centre on personal growth and the realisation of potential. An empowering approach, built on an awareness of and commitment to meet the progressive needs of those we work with, is the route to motivation in all parts of our organisations.

### 3.2.4 Responsibility

In a world where legislation is increasingly used to highlight and define responsibilities, managers need to consider their responsibilities at several levels.

On a personal level we have the responsibility to manage workloads: it is an irony that in many values-driven organisations the assumption is often made that staff of any kind will automatically take on greater and greater workloads – “for the love of it”! We need to make ourselves accountable to friends and family for the amount of time we give to our jobs and for the ways in which we allow work to affect our health and general wellbeing. This of course is a consideration for the managers who either condone, by doing nothing to stop such working practice, or positively encourage by simply asking more and more of their workers.

At another level, managers need to consider the issue of professionalism – both for themselves and their staff. Lack of payment is no excuse for unprofessional conduct and so this applies as much to volunteers and Board members as it does to paid staff. We need to consider the limits of personal relationships in the work place, issues of prejudice and discrimination, health and safety and honesty and integrity. At an organisational level, we need to consider the systems we have in place to safeguard workers against accusations of misconduct in any of these areas. This will no doubt have implications on financial and other resources. There is much legislation around these issues but the values of our organisations should also have an influence on the commitment we show to them.

At a higher level still, the nature of European youth organisations is such that we have responsibilities outside of our organisations too. We have to be accountable to funders and perhaps above all, to the people we exist to serve. The quality of services and information we deliver will be a reflection of the seriousness with which we take all our responsibilities.

## 3.3 Training, development and assessment

### 3.3.1 The learning organisation

Many European youth organisations focus on the development of young people in an holistic way. How this is done is a feature of each individual organisation. The emphasis given to the development of staff and workers will also be unique to each organisation. The fact



that many of our organisations are values driven is sometimes at odds with the hard realities of running programmes with very limited resources. This can lead to compromise when it comes to the amount of time and money devoted to learning. We can however, identify some key features of organisations which would be classed as “learning organisations”.

At the heart of this concept is the idea that organisations develop through the individual, personal development of those who work in them. Some key principles are outlined in the bullet points below.

- The benefit and value of continuing development is recognised by staff and volunteers
- All workers – paid and unpaid – are encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning and development
- Organisational structures are both sufficiently well designed and flexible enough to allow for personal growth and development
- A learning climate is encouraged in which learning from experience and feedback is facilitated and in which mistakes are allowed
- Strategies and policies are developed through consultation and as consciously structured learning processes
- Financial commitment is made through effective budgeting, to support the learning process

### *Suggestions for training*

- Ask participants to consider their organisations in the light of these principles. Where are the strengths, and where are the weaknesses? What are the blocks and what are the opportunities?

There is a temptation, when encouraging learning – especially in young people – to forget that the personal development is intended to result in organisational development. Without clear organisational goals and mission, it is impossible to assess whether or not personal learning will assist in meeting them; or indeed whether it is justified to expend both time and money. Spending time and money for example, on language training course in Spanish will be difficult to justify for people in organisations whose primary area of work is in Belarus!

A further temptation is that we insist on training courses as the only way in which we learn. The term “training and development” is recognised to include more than simply going on courses and the word “learning” is becoming widely used as a catch all for any experience which, when appropriately facilitated, leads to personal growth. As managers of learning organisations we need to be open to seeing opportunities for our staff which will help them grow and consequently be more effective in their jobs. This might relate to competence – including knowledge and skills – or it might relate to motivation or self confidence or team working. It might also relate to the perspective from which an individual looks on a problem or on the organisation itself, for example, a visit to another branch of your organisation – or even to an other organisation all together, may result in the member of staff seeing a problem differently and consequently finding a previously overlooked solution. Examples of non-training-course learning opportunities include job shadowing, (where a staff member or volunteer spends a period of time along side another worker – literally being their “shadow”, either in the organisation or in a different organisation, to see what that job entails and how that person does it), on the job training, conference attendance, learning sets.

Assessment of work performance is mentioned later in this section but it is worth noting here the value of both planning learning in the context of a regular work review and of recording and accrediting any learning which does take place. Personal development logs are an ideal tool for this.

### *Suggestions for training*

- Ask your group to consider the last three occasions when they felt they learned something. Ask them to explain the value of that learning to their organisations and to describe the process by which they learned.
- Who were the key players in the most significant instances of personal growth or development in the last three years? What made them key players?



The reality of many European youth organisations is that they are not learning organisations. There is too frequently a lack of induction into the organisation itself and it is often the case that paid staff work very much in isolation – sometimes at odds with their Boards of Management. The ability to network – either within your own organisation or with others in similar ones – is a crucial part of the Learning Organisation in practice.

### 3.3.2 Learning Styles

As we promote the idea of personal learning, we need to acknowledge that each individual will have a preferred way, or style, of learning. Some people prefer to get at a subject by solving a real problem. Others prefer to hear some theory and make generalisations before applying it to their situation.

In the previous section on management of self, we introduced the concept of learning styles. In this section we need not reiterate the details but we do need to consider the way in which learning styles of those we manage affect the way in which we manage them.

As managers do we get the most from activists by letting them “jump in the deep end”?, or do we ensure that the reflectors in our teams have sufficient time to absorb and consider information before they are pressed for decisions. Do we allow theorists to question things and do we make the most of the pragmatist’s ability to transfer learning from one situation to another?

Likewise when we consider the type of learning experience we encourage our people to engage in: Does the learning style match the learning delivery? One advantage of the experiential learning cycle as described by Kolb, is that it contains elements which are of relevance to each of the four learning styles described by Honey and Mumford. Activists enjoy the doing phase, Reflectors find it easier to engage in the reviewing phase, theorists participate most effectively when allowed to draw out the key learning points and Pragmatists are most able to apply their preferred style in the application of the learning to a new situation.

### 3.3.3 Assessment of performance and work review

If our organisations are to continually grow and develop through the growth and development

of our people, then we need a mechanism for reviewing this on a regular basis. Many commercial organisations use the concept of the annual appraisal as a tool within their “performance related pay schemes”. It is also used this way in some NGOs. The difficulty arises when the focus of such an assessment is on the past performance rather than on the future potential. The term “work review” is perhaps less threatening and provides a balance between the two. The regularity and frequency of work reviews needs careful consideration: A full review annually, with a six month interim review of progress towards agreed goals, is a well tried norm.

It is a sad reflection that Boards often let down their staff – and their fellow volunteers – by not carrying out work reviews. Where the relevant competencies are not present in a Board then training should be sought, or outside help found to provide the service. Regular work reviews are a useful tool to check the relevance and accuracy of job descriptions of staff and volunteers. Job descriptions can also be used to provide an agenda for a work review. Work reviews are also useful as a tool for overcoming resistance to change as they provide an ideal opportunity to consider the individual’s contribution to the development of the organisation at a strategic level.

In assessing past performance, for whatever reason, a number of criteria may be useful to ensure equality and agreement.

1. The assessment needs to be planned. – The process needs to be clearly explained and time given for planning and preparation. The plan also needs to include advice on the kind of evidence which might be used to demonstrate performance.
2. Performance needs to be measured against something. – Targets set at the beginning of an assessment period need to have been agreed from the outset and any changes noted. The measures or standards against which assessment takes place need to be clear and relevant to the job. Again this where reference to the job description and person specification can be useful. J.W. Humble was particularly associated with Management by Objectives (MBO) and the importance of Key Results Analysis (KRA). Criticism of his ideas were that the process of using a job description which listed the main responsibilities, lines of communication, objectives and budgets as the basis for



the setting of Key Results was too mechanical. The mechanism normally associated with the process meant that there was a strong preference for quantitative targets and that these targets may not have led to the business performance which was sought. Given that the whole process was linked with financial reward then it is easy to understand resistance to being “processed” in this way. The temptation for large organisations to adopt this or variations of this system, is obvious. Uniformity and objectivity as well as precision are all proposed as advantages.

3. Feedback must be clear and constructive.
  - Only the set and agreed criteria can be used to make judgements and all available evidence should be used. Where further evidence is available but has not been collected, opportunity to do so should be given. Where inconsistencies arise then these should be clarified and resolved. Giving and receiving feedback can be very divisive and it is essential that both are done with sensitivity and honesty. The idea of the hamburger – top and bottom made up of positive comment, praise and recognition, and the middle made up of points for improvement – is a common approach to this. Feedback needs to be well timed, accurate, specific, relevant and must point to the future.
- The exercise given at the end of the section on coaching is an ideal way to practice and receive feedback on your feedback!

In identifying further learning needs, the following criteria may be useful.

1. Individuals should be able to identify their current competence and their own long term goals. The competencies required to achieve the latter should be established.
2. Learning opportunities should clearly match the learning need. The preferred style of the learner should be taken into account and choices made from as wide a range of opportunities as possible.
3. Managers need to commit to continued support. The assessment meeting should be seen as part of an ongoing process in which the manager has a vital interest. Assistance in choosing learning experiences, preparing for them and reviewing their outcomes should be agreed and built into the plan for the coming period.

4. A record of the performance assessment and the plans and commitments for the future should be written and agreed by both manager and staff members.

The points above are intentionally written in the formal style often used when introducing procedures for work reviews or performance assessments. The reality – perhaps more so in European youth organisations – is that the benefits of such a procedure are more or less controlled by the quality of the relationships between staff and managers – be they paid or unpaid. Open and honest relationships and the ability to give and receive feedback as a daily norm will ensure that regular work reviews are profitable and even enjoyable experiences.

### *Suggestions for training*

- Ask course participants to design a plan for a regular work review. What would be the time scales? What questions would be asked before and during the review.
- Consider the outcomes of a regular work review. How do we make them SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, Timed)?

## 3.4 Coaching, mentoring and counselling

### 3.4.1 Coaching

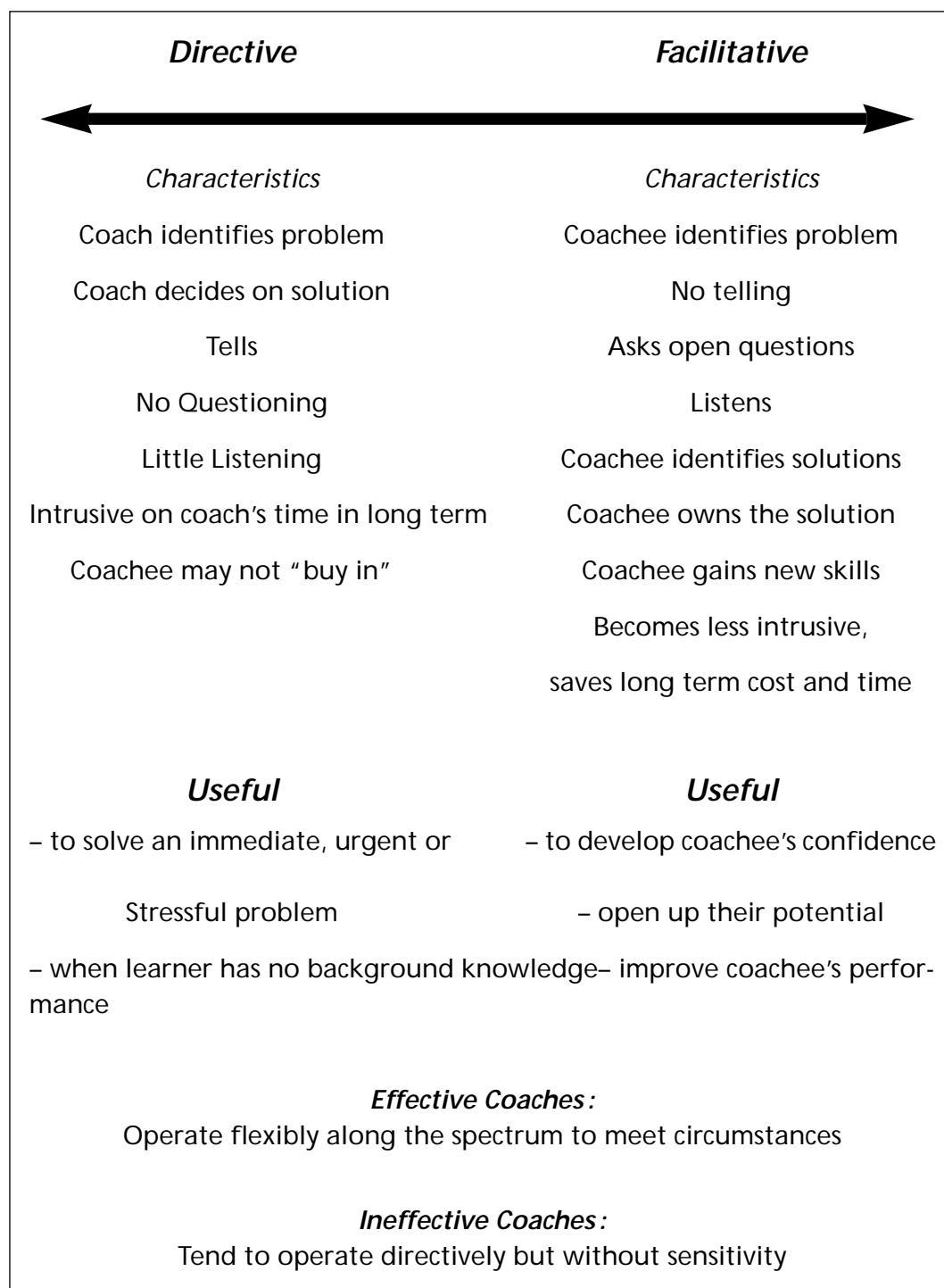
Coaching is a process which aids improvement in performance – traditionally we understand it best in the context of sport. Here, performance is about winning races or competitions, or exceeding previous records.

The coach is a person who enables improvement by using a selection of approaches, styles and techniques appropriate to the sport, the competition and the individual concerned.

It is a feature of coaching that it normally involves a one to one relationship, and this is also true when applied to the world of work.



Fig. OM-17: Coaching spectrum



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Coaching may result from the work review process or may be provided as a result of other situations such as the start of a new job or project. In the Action Centred Leadership model mentioned earlier (figure 12), coaching applies primarily to the circle marking the needs of the individual. Indeed relationship is once again a key word in the use of coaching.

As with leadership, coaching – which can perhaps best be described as one of the many tools of a leader or manager – can be applied using a spectrum of behavioural style; from directive to facilitative.

### *Suggestions for training*

- Consider the issues, problems or tasks which may benefit from coaching amongst staff, paid or unpaid in your organisation.
- Consider how important it is for the coach to understand the technical detail of the job of the coachee. How does this differ from other elements of leadership?

The model below shows the importance of relationship within the coaching process. Trust enables a relationship which can then approach a number of objectives in a cyclical manner.

Feedback is an essential part of coaching. If Coaching is about helping people fill the gaps in their performance, then feedback is the letting people know how well they have filled the gaps.

Giving feedback requires skill and is both the result of and the reason for the trusting relationships mentioned earlier. As a practical check list, consider the following:

1. Start and finish on a positive note – think of feedback like a hamburger, with positive comments being the bun and items for improvement being the meat in the middle.
2. Concentrate on facts and be prepared to give specific examples.
3. Think about your body language. What signals are you giving through your posture and eye contact (or lack of it)!

4. Make sure that feedback is given as soon as possible after the observations are made.
5. Using a facilitative approach will leave the coachee the time to work on his or her own solutions. Open questioning will help in this process.

Receiving feedback also requires skill, and perhaps most importantly, the desire to learn. Some practical tips include:

1. Remember that the person giving feedback is on your side. They may be taking a risk in talking this way.
2. Consider your body language. What signals are you sending through your eye contact and body posture?
3. Listen carefully, seek clarification when necessary, don't seek to justify or defend unless asked to.

### *Suggestions for training*

- Choose an activity where a coach can observe another member of the course carrying out a task (eg giving a presentation). Provide time to prepare and then set up a coaching interview where a third member of the group can observe and give feedback on the feedback!

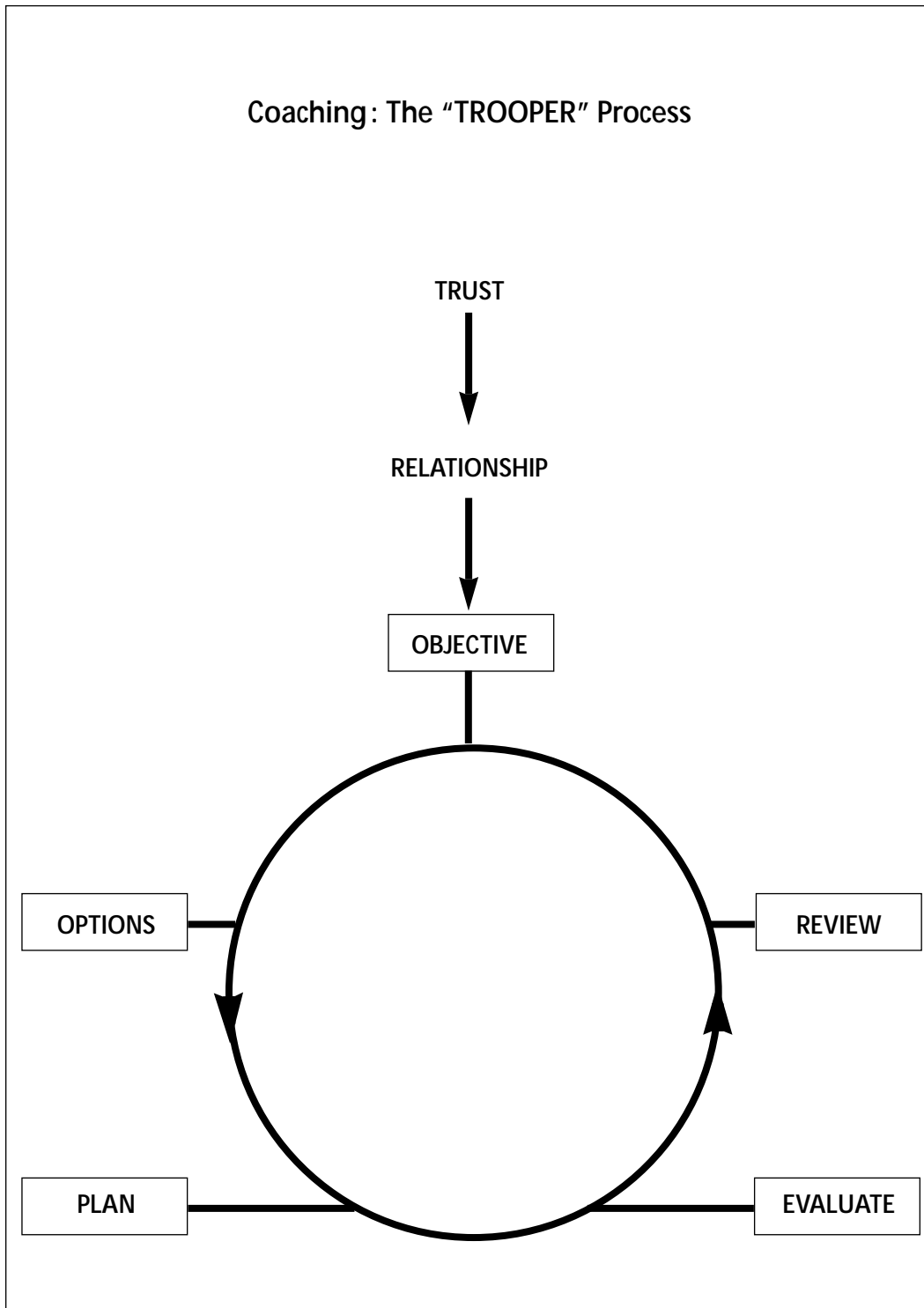
### *3.4.2 Mentoring*

While coaching is generally seen as a tool used by a manager, mentoring in common modern usage is often, but not exclusively, a relationship which happens outside of the manager/subordinate situation. The word comes from Greek mythology where Ulysses entrusted his son to the care of his old friend Mentor. Coaching and counselling are often used to mean mentoring, but it is hoped that this section will provide a sufficiently clear distinction between the three.

In the introduction to David Clutterbuck's book "Everyone Needs a Mentor" 1991 a great range of definitions are given. In brief, phrases like "mixture of parent of peer", "a role model, a guide, a coach and a confidant", "a protected relationship in which learning and experimentation can occur, potential skills can be



Fig. OM-18: Trooper diagram



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developed and in which results can be measured in terms of competencies rather than curricular territory covered”.

Mentoring then is about personal growth which does not have to relate to the job of the protégé directly. It has the character of a long term relationship in which an individual is encouraged to explore, discuss, experience, discuss some more, and maybe draw some conclusions along the way. The trust and integrity are crucial once again, as is long term commitment from both mentor and protégé.

Some people choose mentors from outside of their organisations whilst others prefer the closer understanding of the organisation brought by a colleague. Peer mentoring in young organisations, or those which are only staffed by young people can be equally beneficial. It can also be a mutually beneficial process – particularly if a staff member is mentored by a volunteer or Board member.

### Suggestions for training

- One commentator’s summary of the role of a mentor is given below. Consider first how competent you would be to carry out each part of the role; and secondly who you currently know who might be able to fulfil the role for you.

#### MENTORS

- Manage the relationship
- Encourage the protégé
- Nurture the protégé
- Teach the protégé
- Offer mutual respect
- Respond to the protégé’s needs



Using this model, it is hard to argue against peer mentoring.

If the role of mentor is as described then this will help us in finding mentors – and conversely assessing our own suitability to become one. Clutterbuck provides a checklist. He suggests we look for a mentor who:

1. Already has a good record for developing others

2. Has a genuine interest in seeing people advance and can relate to their problems
3. Has a wide range of current skills to pass on
4. Has a good understanding of the organisation; how it works and where it is going
5. Combines patience with interpersonal skills and an ability to work in an unstructured programme
6. Has sufficient time to devote to the relationship
7. Can gain a protégé’s respect
8. Has his or her own network of contacts and influence

It is regarded as healthy practice that mentor relationships have clear beginnings and endings. It is not uncommon for these relations to develop into friendships which last for years. The original relationship is one of considerable responsibility – frequently set up at the request of the organisation and with the ultimate goal of benefiting the organisation.

Mentoring relationships in large commercial organisations are frequently based around specific pieces of work or clearly defined projects. This perhaps gives a focus to professional growth. Where the mentoring relationship uses the day to day experiences as dictated by day to day pressures of work in a non profit NGO then the focus might be rather different. Once again we come across the concept of personal growth for the sake of it – a part perhaps of the value base of our organisations. The mentoring relationship can aid personal growth across as wide a spectrum of life as both mentor and protégé decide.

### Suggestions for training

- Ask participants to consider how they might use a mentor relationship. What issues would they consider it beneficial to discuss with a mentor. How “deep” would they be prepared to go?

### 3.4.3 Counselling

Counselling is another word which we find being interchanged with others and being used in a range of different contexts. For the





purposes of this section, we will take it to mean a process or interaction, used within a range of relationships, which assists a person in thinking through an issue or problem. We will not discuss here the professional counselling which brings a range of specialist skills albeit based on the principles of active listening described below. In this section, the term client is used as this is the one used, in English, by professionals in the field

As such counselling techniques are used by leaders, managers, coaches, mentors and a whole spectrum of peer relationships.

Counselling is basically about solving problems. It frequently follows the progression:

**Contract – Exploration – Understanding –  
Action – Review**

A contract is an agreement between the counsellor and client. It needs to cover time constraints, limits of confidentiality and expectations about the process.

Exploration is the phase where active listening is the key. The mnemonic EARS may be of help here:

**E**ncourage  
**A**sk  
**R**eflect  
**S**ummarise

During the understanding phase, the aim is to make sure that both counsellor and client understand the issues clearly and fully. Paraphrasing, encouraging specificity, challenging contradictions and clarifying implications are all part of the process.

**Action:** This is the main problem solving phase and it may involve drawing the problem using a mind map or flow chart. It might involve a range of problem solving questions (eg SWOT – Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats), a then-and-now-analysis or starting with the objective (the solution) and working backwards.

**Review:** If you agree to follow up the counselling session after an agreed period of time, you will introduce an element of supported accountability for the decisions made. You will also ensure that the ongoing support is monitored.

**Warning.** Counselling can result in a range of outcomes. The client may feel good and motivated to follow through the agreed actions. The s/he may however only have come as far as having a fuller understanding of the problem but needs further specialist help in resolving it. But in some cases the client may feel even more unsettled than previously. A major problem may have been exposed and a way forward may not be obvious.

From the counsellors point of view, there may be great satisfaction in having helped a team member or colleague, but the counsellor may also feel burdened with the client's problem. There may be personal growth through empathising with the client but there may also be shock and distress.

In professional counselling, supervision and support for counsellors is crucial. As a manager in a counselling role, it is essential that you consider your own support structure. **If you are unsure about your ability to deal with problem then seek external help.**

